

Does fungal competitive ability explain host specificity or rarity in ectomycorrhizal symbioses?

Peter G. Kennedy¹, Joe Gagne¹, Eduardo Perez-Pazos¹, Lotus A. Lofgren², Nhu H. Nguyen³

1. Department of Plant and Microbial Biology, University of Minnesota

2. Department of Microbiology and Plant Pathology, University of California, Riverside

3. Department of Tropical Plant & Soil Sciences, University of Hawai'i, Manoa

Text: 4522 words

Figures: 2

Tables: 1

Supplemental Info: Fig. S1-3

Corresponding author: Peter Kennedy, kennedyp@umn.edu

Abstract

Two common ecological assumptions are that host generalist and rare species are poorer competitors relative to host specialist and more abundant counterparts. While these assumptions have received considerable study in both plant and animals, how they apply to ectomycorrhizal fungi remains largely unknown. To investigate how interspecific competition may influence the anomalous host associations of the rare ectomycorrhizal generalist fungus, *Suillus subaureus*, we conducted a seedling bioassay. *Pinus strobus* seedlings were inoculated in single- or two-species treatments of three *Suillus* species: *S. subaureus*, *S. americanus*, and *S. spraguei*. After 4 and 8 months of growth, seedlings were harvested and scored for mycorrhizal colonization as well as dry biomass. At both time points, we found a clear competitive hierarchy among these species: *S. americanus* > *S. subaureus* > *S. spraguei*, with the competitive inferior, *S. spraguei*, having significantly delayed colonization relative to *S. americanus* and *S. subaureus*. In the single-species treatments, we found no significant differences in the dry biomasses of seedlings colonized by each *Suillus* species, suggesting none of these species was a more effective plant symbiont relative to each other. Taken together, these results indicate that the rarity and anomalous host associations exhibited by *S. subaureus* in natural settings are not driven by inherently poor competitive ability or host growth promotion, but that the timing of colonization is a key factor determining the outcome of ectomycorrhizal fungal competitive interactions.

Keywords: *Suillus*, host specificity, competition-specificity tradeoff, rarity, bioassay

Introduction

A fundamental axiom in biology is the existence of tradeoffs, which are commonly defined as an increase in performance in one area being correlated with a decrease in performance in another area (Garland 2014). In ecology and evolution, tradeoffs generally focus on specific traits that shape the life history strategy of a given species (Stearns 1989). For example, many organisms exhibit tradeoffs among growth, storage, and reproduction based on energetic constraints (Lailvaux and Husak 2014). These tradeoffs are frequently conceptualized as bifurcations in allocation, commonly referred to as Y models (e.g. allocation to survival or allocation to fecundity, James (1974)). While tradeoffs typically function at the level of the individual organism, their consequences can have important effects on the structure of ecological communities. Specifically, the presence of tradeoffs underpins much of the basic ecological theory explaining species coexistence (MacArthur 1972, Tilman 1982), as species generally have a particular set of traits that make them well suited to persist in certain environments but not in others.

Like many other organisms, ectomycorrhizal (ECM) fungi, which form symbiotic associations with the roots of many plants (Smith and Read 2008), have been shown to exhibit ecological tradeoffs that can be linked to their life history strategies. For example, with the rise of molecular-based analyses in fungal ecology (Horton and Bruns 2001, Peay et al. 2008), it was found that many ECM fungal species that produce sporocarps abundantly aboveground were not the dominant species colonizing host root tips belowground (Gardes and Bruns 1996). This discordance suggested that allocation to sporocarps, which favor greater dispersal capacity and colonization of new areas, may come at the cost of proliferation of belowground mycelium (Peay et al. 2007). Mycelium is essential for all fungal nutrient and water acquisition, but for ECM fungi

it is also important for colonizing additional root tips (and thereby gaining carbon from plant hosts), so lower investment in mycelium would be likely to reduce root-tip competitive ability (Kennedy 2010). Subsequent empirical and theoretical studies of ECM fungal communities have provided clear support for this tradeoff (i.e. between competition and colonization ability) (Kennedy et al. 2011, Moeller and Peay 2016, Smith et al. 2018), mirroring similar tradeoffs observed in plant and microbial communities (Yu and Wilson 2001, Cadotte 2007).

The competitive ability of ECM fungi and other aspects of their life histories have also been demonstrated to involve tradeoffs. For example, Moeller and Peay (2016) demonstrated that a diverse suite of enzymatic activities produced by ECM fungi was inversely correlated with their competitive ability. Specifically, they found that the ECM fungal species with the greatest competitive ability, *Thelephora terrestris*, had the lowest activities of the five nutrient-acquiring extracellular enzymes measured, while the competitive inferior, *Suillus pungens*, had consistently high enzyme activity. While this competition-function tradeoff did not result in significant differences in growth when seedlings were colonized by different ECM fungal species, the relatively nutrient-rich conditions of their greenhouse-based study may have masked differential growth effects.

Another possible competition-related trade-off for ECM fungi involves host specificity. In parasite/pathogen systems, competition for hosts is thought to select for greater parasite specificity (Futuyma and Moreno 1988, Poulin 2007), with specialists being stronger competitors than generalists on their preferred hosts (i.e. ‘the jack of all trades is the master of none’, MacArthur 1972). While specialization on a single host may counter the negative effects experienced by

symbionts on hosts colonized by multiple species, other studies have shown that interspecific competition among symbionts favors the evolution of host generalism as a means of promoting local coexistence (Bono et al. 2015). To date, there has only been one test of a potential competition-specificity tradeoff in ECM fungi. Parlade and Alvarez (1993) examined interspecific competition among four ECM fungal species, two generalists (*Laccaria bicolor* and *Pisolithus arrhizus*) and two specialists (*Rhizopogon roseolus* and *R. subareolatus*) on the common host *Pseudotsuga menziesii*. Comparing all two-species pairings, the authors found that the outcome of competition generally favored host generalists (in 3 of the 4 pairings, the generalist won). This suggests that host specificity and competitive ability among ECM fungi may not be tightly linked, which is consistent with many of the dominant species in ECM fungal communities being host generalists (Horton and Bruns 1998, Twieg et al. 2007, Kennedy et al. 2012).

Species abundances have also been considered in the ecological literature about competition-related tradeoffs. It is often assumed that rare species have low abundances because of lowered competitive abilities (Griggs 1940). Despite this intuition, there are many explanations for species rarity that are not related to competitive ability (Gaston 1994), such as the occupation of uncommon niches (Markham 2014). A direct test of rarity and competitive ability in plants found that multiple locally rare grass species were actually strong competitors against more abundant grass species, which may facilitate their persistence despite their low abundances (Rabinowitz et al. 1984). Similarly, Lloyd et al. (2002) found that the relationship between plant range size and competitive ability was inconsistent, depending on both the lineage tested and soil fertility level. While the broader topic of rarity has received less attention in the study of ECM fungi, it has been demonstrated that less abundant species do not appear to have consistently lower nutrient

acquisition potential (based on extracellular enzyme activity of ECM root tips sampled from mature trees) relative to more abundant species (Walker et al. 2014).

We have recently become interested in the aforementioned tradeoffs to better understand the enigmatic life history strategy of the ECM fungus, *Suillus subaureus*. Unlike other *Suillus* species, which are largely host-specific to one of three different host genera in the family Pinaceae (Nguyen et al. 2016), *S. subaureus* is able to colonize both *Pinus* and *Quercus* host species. However, this expansion of host range is complicated by the fact that the spores of *S. subaureus* will only germinate in the presence of Pinaceae host (Lofgren et al. 2018). As such, the establishment on *Quercus* individuals requires spread of *S. subaureus* mycelium growing from colonized Pinaceae root tips. Curiously, in the three sites where we have encountered *S. subaureus* sporocarps, *Pinus* hosts are always locally absent, although they can be found as isolated individuals or in small patches less than one km away. Under those nearby *Pinus* individuals, we have encountered other *Suillus* species but never encountered *S. subaureus* despite extensive searching. Thus, it appears that the presence of *S. subaureus* on *Quercus* hosts represents a legacy effect of *Pinus* individuals that are no longer present (Lofgren et al. 2018). Further, in our extensive collecting of *Suillus* throughout Minnesota, USA, we have regularly encountered many other *Suillus* species in *Pinus* forests, but only *S. subaureus* in two locations. The latter suggests that in addition to its anomalous host associations, *S. subaureus* is also a much rarer species than other *Suillus*.

To investigate how interspecific competition may contribute to the curious life history of *Suillus subaureus*, we conducted a seedling bioassay. In addition to *S. subaureus*, we collected spores of two other common *Suillus* species, *S. americanus* and *S. spraguei*, which regularly produce

abundant sporocarps in *Pinus strobus* forests in eastern North America. We then inoculated *Pinus strobus* seedlings with all combinations of single- and two-species treatments of these *Suillus* species. We hypothesized that *S. subaureus* would be a competitive inferior to both *S. americanus* and *S. spraguei* based on its absence in extant *Pinus strobus* forests. From analyses of other *Suillus* bioassays (Lofgren et al. 2018, Bogar et al. 2019), we did not expect to observe major differences in *P. strobus* seedling biomass when colonized individually by the three different species. Finally, to better qualify the potential rarity of *S. subaureus* relative to other *Suillus* species, we compared the herbarium records and citizen science observations of these three *Suillus* species (in terms of both numbers of collections and geographic range) in Minnesota and throughout eastern North America.

Methods

Mushroom Collection

In fall 2018, multiple sporocarps of each of the three *Suillus* species were collected at two different locations in Minnesota, USA. *S. subaureus* mushrooms were collected from Interstate State Park (45.3947°N, 92.6678°W), while mushrooms of *S. americanus* and *S. spraguei* were collected at Cedar Creek Ecosystem Science Reserve (45.4020°N, 93.1994°W). Whenever possible, individual sporocarps were collected >5 m apart to try to maximize genetic diversity. In the laboratory, the stipe of each sporocarp was removed and the pileus was placed onto an individual piece of aluminum foil and then covered with a glass jar. After 12 hours, the jar and pileus were both removed and the resulting spore prints were folded, place in plastic ziptop bags, and stored at -20°C.

Spore Inoculum

To generate spore slurries for seedling inoculations, spores of each species were washed off the aluminum foil prints using deionized water and collected into separate 50 ml tubes by species. Alcohol was used to wipe down surfaces and tools were flame-sterilized between species to eliminate cross-contamination. Under 40x magnification on a Nikon light microscope, the number of spores per slurry was counted in eight separate 10 ul aliquots using a haemocytometer, after which the number of spores per ml was calculated. Slurries were stored at 4 °C for 24 h ahead of inoculation.

Seedling Bioassays

Pinus strobus seeds were obtained from Sheffield's Seed Company (Locke, NY, USA) in winter 2019. The seeds were soaked in deionized water for 24 hours and then stratified in a plastic bag at 4°C for 60 days to facilitate germination. In April 2019, seeds were bulk planted into trays containing sterilized Sunshine grow mix soil #4 (Sun Gro, Agawam, MA, USA) and placed in a growth chamber set with a 14:10 light:dark cycle at 22°C. For the competition bioassays, a soil mixture consisting of sand, peat moss, and forest loam soil (2:2:1 by volume) was created. The forest soil came from the Mullins Woods on the University of Minnesota Saint Paul Campus. The forest soil and peat moss were both sieved using a 5 mm mesh to remove sticks, roots, and other debris. The soil mixture was composited in a large heavy-duty plastic bag, shaken to homogenize, and then placed into multiple autoclave trays, spread evenly no more than 5 cm thick. To eliminate any existing fungal inoculum, soils were autoclaved at 121 °C for 90 minutes, cooled for >24 hours, and autoclaved a second time. The soil was then stored in sterile 20 L plastic buckets at 4°C until use.

Surface-sterilized 100 mL cone-tainers (Steuwe and Sons, Tangent, OR, USA) (pots) were filled with a small amount of polyester pillow filling to cover the pot drainage holes. Each pot was then filled with 90 mL of sterilized soil. The soil was then moistened with water; some manual mixing was required due to the hygroscopic nature of the soil following autoclaving. In June 2019, one seedling was transplanted into each pot (which was harvested on the same day from the germination trays, with the root systems rinsed of any adhering media) and immediately watered to ensure root-water contact. Spores were then injected into the top layer of soil via pipetting to each treatment at a concentration of 5×10^5 spores/species per ml of soil/pot. The inoculated seedlings were grown in the same growth chamber as the germination trays with the same light:dark cycle and watered 2-3 times per week throughout the duration of the experiment. The temperature in the chamber, which was set to 22°C, fluctuated somewhat during the experiment due to multiple short-term chamber malfunctions during the final month of growth, but the seedlings did not appear to suffer from this variation.

At four (September 2019) and eight (January 2020) months after spore inoculation, seedlings in each treatment were harvested. After being removed from the pots, the root systems of each seedling were gently washed to remove all soil. The entire root system of each harvested seedling was examined under 10-20x magnification on a Nikon dissecting scope for mycorrhizal colonization. Root tips colonized by the three *Suillus* species were distinguished from uncolonized root tips by the presence of a white mantle (Fig. S1). For the scoring of percent colonization, all root tips less than 1 mm long were not counted. Similarly, root tips with poorly developed mantles were not counted as colonized. Any tips with coraloid clusters at their apex were counted as a

single root tip. After scoring colonization, roots and shoots of each seedling were dried at 60°C for 48 hours and then weighed.

Molecular Identification

Because the color and shape of the mycorrhizal root tips of the three *Suillus* species was very similar (Fig. S1), we used molecular techniques to identify which species were present in the two-species treatments. Ten colonized tips per seedling in each two-species treatment were randomly selected and placed into 10 µl of tissue Extraction Solution (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) (if less than 10 tips were colonized, then all tips were removed). The tubes containing the tips and Extraction Solution were placed onto a thermocycler and incubated at 65°C for 10 minutes and 95°C for 10 minutes. Afterwards, 30 µl of Neutralization Solution were added to each tube and all extractions were stored at 4°C ahead of PCR. The Internal Transcribed Spaced (ITS) region of the rRNA gene was amplified using the fungal-specific primer pair ITS1F (Gardes & Bruns, 1993) and ITS4 (White et al. 1990). 15 µl PCR reactions were conducted using 7.5 µl of REDE PCR mix, 0.75 µl of each primer (at [10 µM]), 1 µl of DNA template, and 5 µl of sterile water. PCR cycling conditions were as follows: 95°C for 1 minute, then repeating 95°C 30 seconds, 55°C for 20 seconds, and 72°C for 50 seconds, 34 times, then 72°C for 5 minutes and cooled to 12°C. Success of PCR was confirmed by running 5 µl of reaction product on a 1% agarose gel. Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism (RFLP) reactions were then performed on the products from successful PCRs using the restriction enzyme *Alul* and Cutsmart buffer (New England Biolabs, Waltham, MA, USA). Gel electrophoresis was run on the products using 2%/1% (regular/low melt temperature) agarose gel. RFLP band patterns were compared to patterns from known samples of each species (Fig. S2).

Statistical Analysis

All statistical analyses were conducted in R (v3.6.2, R Core Team 2018). The percent mycorrhizal colonization of each *Suillus* species in the two-species treatments was determined by taking the total percent mycorrhizal colonization and dividing it by the ratio of the counts for each species on the 10 tips analyzed (i.e. if 9 of 10 tips belonged to *S. subaureus* and 1 belonged to *S. spraguei*, 90% of the total mycorrhizal colonization would be assigned to *S. subaureus* and 10% of the total mycorrhizal colonization to *S. spraguei*). For each species, the percent mycorrhizal colonization was compared using Type-II sum of squares two-way analyses of variance (ANOVAs) in the ‘car’ package (<https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/car/car.pdf>), with harvest date and treatment (single vs. two species) as the predictor variables. At each harvest date, total seedling biomass was compared using a one-way ANOVA, with inoculation treatment as the predictor variable. Before running all ANOVAs, variance and normality assumptions were tested and found to be met, except for the percent mycorrhizal colonization by *S. spraguei*, which was dominated by zero values. Differences among means were assessed using a post-hoc Tukey HSD Test run in the ‘emmeans’ package (<https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/emmeans/emmeans.pdf>).

Herbarium Collections

On March 15, 2020, the Mycology Collections Portal (www.mycportal.org) was queried for records of *S. subaureus*, *S. americanus*, and *S. spraguei*. Nguyen et al. (2016) determined that *S. spraguei* was actually the correct name for North American collections that had been called *S. pictus*, so here records of *S. spraguei* and *S. pictus* were combined. We made two separate queries: 1) the number of collections and their geographic locations for collections held in the Bell Museum

of Natural History, which primarily covers the region of Minnesota, and 2) the number of collections and their geographic locations for collections currently in any of the following herbaria, which cover the geographic range of *Pinus strobus*: State University of New York College at Cortland (CORT), Eastern Illinois University (EIU), Field Museum of Natural History (F), University of Illinois Herbarium (ILL), University of Illinois, Illinois Natural History Survey Fungarium (ILLS), Indiana University (IND), Iowa State University, Ada Hayden Herbarium (ISC), University of Michigan Herbarium (MICH), Michigan State University Herbarium (MSC), NAMP - New York Mycological Society: Macrofungi of New York City, New York (NAMP-NYMS), New York Botanical Garden (NY), New York State Museum (NYS), State University of New York, SUNY College of Environmental Science and Forestry Herbarium (SYRF), Royal Ontario Museum Fungarium (TRTC), University of Wisconsin-Stevens Point Herbarium (UWSP), University of Manitoba (WIN), University of Wisconsin-Madison Herbarium (WIS). On the same date, we also searched for observations of all three *Suillus* species on iNaturalist (inaturalist.org). In both datasets (i.e. collections and observations), we limited our final records to those within the native range of *P. strobus*.

Results

After 4 months, the number of seedlings colonized varied depending on treatment (Table 1). In the single-species treatments, 100% of the seedlings inoculated with *S. americanus* were colonized, 85% of the seedlings inoculated with *S. subaureus* were colonized, and none of the seedlings inoculated with *S. spraguei* were colonized. In the two-species treatments, all seedlings except for one seedling in the *S. subaureus*/*S. spraguei* treatment were colonized. In terms of percent mycorrhizal colonization, all three species showed no significant differences among the single-

and two-species treatments (Fig. 1a-c), despite trends indicating that *S. subaureus* was the competitive inferior to *S. americanus* and that *S. spraguei* was competitively inferior to both other *Suillus* species due to its lack of colonization in all treatments.

Table 1. Frequency of ectomycorrhizal fungal colonization and total biomass of *Pinus strobus* seedlings in the competition bioassay. Different letters signify significant differences as determined by Tukey HSD tests (letter sizes correspond to separate ANOVAs).

Growth Period	Competition Treatment	Species Inoculation	Seedling Replicates	Seedlings Colonized	Seedling Biomass (g)
4 month	N/A	No inoculation	7	0	0.17 (0.02) a
4 month	Single-species	<i>S. americanus</i>	7	7	0.23 (0.03) a
4 month	Single-species	<i>S. subaureus</i>	7	6	0.23 (0.02) a
4 month	Single-species	<i>S. spraguei</i>	7	0	0.15 (0.02) a
4 month	Two-species	<i>S. americanus</i> - <i>S. subaureus</i>	7	7	0.19 (0.03) a
4 month	Two-species	<i>S. subaureus</i> - <i>S. spraguei</i>	7	6	0.16 (0.01) a
4 month	Two-species	<i>S. americanus</i> - <i>S. spraguei</i>	7	7	0.14 (0.02) a
8 month	N/A	No inoculation	7	0	0.38 (0.06) AB
8 month	Single-species	<i>S. americanus</i>	7	7	0.49 (0.06) A
8 month	Single-species	<i>S. subaureus</i>	7	6	0.41 (0.04) AB
8 month	Single-species	<i>S. spraguei</i>	7	5	0.39 (0.05) AB
8 month	Two-species	<i>S. americanus</i> - <i>S. subaureus</i>	7	7	0.31 (0.03) AB
8 month	Two-species	<i>S. subaureus</i> - <i>S. spraguei</i>	7	4	0.29 (0.04) AB
8 month	Two-species	<i>S. americanus</i> - <i>S. spraguei</i>	7	7	0.21 (0.03) B

After 8 months, the colonization frequency across treatments remained similar for *S. americanus* and *S. subaureus*, but different for *S. spraguei* (Table 1). As opposed to no colonization after 4 months, *S. spraguei* colonized the majority of the seedlings in the single-species treatment (5 of 7), although at a consistently low percent mycorrhizal colonization (mean = 4%, Fig. 1f). *S. spraguei* also colonized a single tip on one of the *S. subaureus*/*S. spraguei* seedlings, but was not detected on any of the other seedlings in that treatment and was completely absent from the *S. americanus*/*S. spraguei* treatment. The percent mycorrhizal colonization of *S. americanus* remained similar across treatments (indicating no significant negative effect of competition) (Fig. 1d), while the percent mycorrhizal colonization of *S. subaureus* was significantly lower in the *S. americanus*/*S. subaureus* treatment than the single-species treatment and the *S. subaureus*/*S. spraguei* treatments (Fig. 1e). Additionally, the percent mycorrhizal colonization of *S. spraguei*

was significantly higher in the single-species treatment than in either of the two-species treatments (Fig. 1f).

The total biomass of seedlings after 4 months was not significantly different across treatments, including the non-inoculated control seedlings (Table 1). After 8 months, seedlings in the *S. americanus* single-species treatment had significantly higher total biomass than the seedlings in the *S. americanus*/*S. spraguei* treatment, with the mean total biomass of seedlings in all other treatments being intermediate.

There was a total of 85 records for the three *Suillus* species in the Bell Museum herbarium (Minnesota), 324 records in the combined herbaria of eastern North America, and 1689 records in the iNaturalist database. While the geographical range of all three species was generally similar in both east-west and north-south extent (Fig. 2), *S. subaureus* was the least abundant species in all three queries. Specifically, *S. subaureus* represented only ~20% (60/324) of the records in the combined herbaria in eastern North America, ~6% (5/85) of records in the Bell Museum herbarium, and ~1% (22/1789) of the iNaturalist observations. *S. americanus* was more than twice as common in both the Bell and other herbaria collections as *S. spraguei* (Bell: *S. americanus* = 56, *S. spraguei* = 24; Other herbaria: *S. americanus* = 179, *S. spraguei* = 80), while the two species had relatively similar abundances in the iNaturalist observations (*S. americanus* = 772, *S. spraguei* = 895).

Discussion

We found a clear competitive hierarchy among the three ECM fungal species tested, with *S. americanus* being competitively dominant, *S. subaureus* competitively intermediate, and *S. spraguei* competitively inferior. This ordering is not consistent with our hypothesis that *S. subaureus* would be the competitive inferior due to its absence from extant *P. strobus* forests. While our results only pertain to a limited set of congeneric ECM fungal species, they suggest that the local absence of *S. subaureus* in *P. strobus* forests is not likely due to inherently low competitive ability. This finding is consistent with other studies of rare species, which indicate that species abundance and competitive ability are not necessarily tightly coupled (Rabinowitz et al. 1984, Lloyd et al. 2002). In our study system, the unusual capacity of *S. subaureus* to colonize *Quercus* individuals results in a competitive refuge, at least from other Pinaceae-specific species, which are among the dominant colonists of young pine seedlings in Minnesota and elsewhere (Glassman et al. 2015). We suggest these two factors, i.e. sufficient competitive ability against some other ECM fungal species and the unique ability to colonize novel hosts, combine to support the overall persistence of *S. subaureus* mixed conifer-angiosperms forests in spite of their low population sizes.

The competitive dynamics observed among these *Suillus* species reveal important parallels with other studies of ECM fungal competition. For example, it appears that the competitively dominant species, here *S. americanus*, possesses spores that germinate both rapidly and consistently. This was most apparent at the first harvest (i.e. four months), where *S. americanus* colonized every seedling onto which it was inoculated (including in the two-species treatments), while *S. subaureus* colonized many but not all of the seedlings onto which it was inoculated, and *S. spraguei*, which colonized none of the seedlings onto which it was inoculated. Because early colonization of a

single root tip generally results in additional root tip colonization via mycelium on the same seedling (Mujic et al. 2016), this early and consistent colonization likely also explains the higher levels of percent mycorrhizal colonization of *S. americanus* across treatments. The results from the second harvest confirm that all three species had viable spores, as *S. spraguei* was found in the majority of the single-species seedling replicates and on a single root tip of one *S. subaureus*/*S. spraguei* seedling. However, the delay in colonization by *S. spraguei* that resulted in notably lower percent mycorrhizal colonization, particularly relative to the other two species, is likely a significant factor explaining why it was outcompeted in all two-species treatments. The slower spore germination by *S. spraguei* may also be linked to its preference for older *P. strobus* forests, in contrast to *S. americanus* which is more common in younger *P. strobus* forests and where rapid spore germination is particularly important for initial establishment (N. Nguyen, pers. obs.). The presence of preemptive colonization driving competitive outcomes, a.k.a. priority effects, appears to be a common pattern observed in ECM fungal competition, both in lab and field settings (see Kennedy (2010) for a review). Yet other studies have found that competitive outcomes can be reversed depending on order of arrival (Kennedy et al. 2009) or when based on mycelial rather than spore colonization (Kennedy et al. 2011). We imagine that these possibilities in combination with the highly patchy nature of ECM fungal assemblages (Izzo et al. 2006, Pickles et al. 2011), allow for sufficient opportunities for *S. spraguei* to colonize *P. strobus*, thereby preventing competitive exclusion in natural settings.

A second possible explanation for the absence of *S. subaureus* in extant *P. strobus* forests is that it is not a beneficial symbiont. Recent work on plant discrimination in ECM fungal symbioses suggests that plants can reward portions of the root system that provide more nitrogen and that

there is some amount of pre-colonization chemical screening that controls ECM fungal colonization (Bogar et al. 2019). However, in the case of *S. subaureus*, it does not appear that there is any active host inhibition, as it colonized many of the seedlings just as quickly as *S. americanus*. Similarly, the lack of differences in seedling dry biomass across treatments is also consistent with *S. subaureus* being a functionally equivalent symbiont to the other two *Suillus* species. The soil mixture used is not particularly nutrient rich, but it is possible that the experimental conditions used masked potential growth effects across treatments, especially since none of the inoculated seedlings were significantly larger than the non-mycorrhizal control seedlings (Table 1). We did however, find that competition lowered seedling growth, which is similar to previous results in other ECM competition studies (Kennedy et al. 2007, Moeller and Peay 2016). Moving forward, more detailed studies using isotopic tracers of carbon and nitrogen exchange (e.g. Plett et al. 2020) would help in determining if *S. subaureus* has different physiological interactions with its host. Based on our results here and those presented in Lofgren et al. (2018), however, we suspect that symbiont benefit is not a primary driver of the anomalous host associations of *S. subaureus*.

Both the herbarium records and citizen science observations of these three *Suillus* species correspond well with our own field observations. Specifically, we have found *S. subaureus* fruiting only 3 times in 5 years of regular mushroom collecting in the Midwest, USA, while we have found both *S. americanus* and *S. spraguei* fruiting every year during the same time period in a wide variety of Midwest locations. Members of the genus *Suillus* produce relatively large sporocarps are generally considered prolific fruiters (Dahlberg and Finlay 1999), so we doubt that the patterns for *S. subaureus* observed are due to cryptic missed collections. Similarly, the distinctive coloring of *S. subaureus*, which has a more orange pore surface and different pileus characteristics than

other co-occurring *Suillus* species (Fig. S3), makes it unlikely that the differences in collections and observations reflects misidentification. Instead, we believe that *S. subaureus* is truly a rare *Suillus* species. While fungal conservation efforts lag behind those of plants and animals, there is growing global interest in documenting fungal species abundances for assigning protected status (Ainsworth et al. 2018). Although neither host of *S. subaureus* appears to be in need of conservation, given the limited abundance of *S. subaureus* and its particularly unique life history, it may be a good candidate for being designated at greater conservation status.

Conclusions

This study provides new insight into the curious ecology of the rare ectomycorrhizal fungus, *S. subaureus*. Our results suggest that two apparent hypotheses are unlikely to explain its anomalous host associations: 1) a weak competitive ability forcing *S. subaureus* to take refuge on alternative hosts and 2) a poor symbiont that is actively discriminated against by its *Pinus* host. Future competitive tests against other species common in ECM fungal spore banks (Glassman et al. 2015) and mature *Pinus* forests (Talbot et al. 2014) will help in determining the extent to which the results observed here hold against more distantly related species. Additionally, comparisons of the genome content of *S. subaureus* (Lofgren et al. 2019) as well as its gene expression during symbiotic establishment (Liao et al. 2016) to other closely related *Suillus* will help shed light on its unique capacity to associate with both *Pinus* and *Quercus* hosts.

Acknowledgments

We thank A. Certano and F. Maillard for assistance with the bioassay set-up and maintenance. Funding was provided by a National Science Foundation (DEB grant #1554375) to P.G. Kennedy

408 and R. Vilgalys and the University of Minnesota Undergraduate Research Opportunity Program
409 to J. Gagne.

References Cited

1. Ainsworth AM, Canteiro C, Dahlberg A, Douglas B, Furci G, Mueller GGM, et al. Conservation of Fungi. State of the world's fungi 2018. London, UK: Royal Botanic Gardens Kew; 2018.
2. Bogar L, Peay K, Kornfeld A, Huggins J, Hortal S, Anderson I, et al. Plant-mediated partner discrimination in ectomycorrhizal mutualisms. *Mycorrhiza*. 2019;29: 97–111.
3. Bono LM, Gensel CL, Pfennig DW, Burch CL. Evolutionary rescue and the coexistence of generalist and specialist competitors: An experimental test. *Proc R Soc B Biol Sci*. 2015;282: 1–7.
4. Cadotte MW. Concurrent niche and neutral processes in the competition–colonization model of species coexistence. *Proc R Soc B Biol Sci*. 2007;274: 2739–2744.
5. Dahlberg A, Finlay RD. *Suillus*. In: Cairney JWG, Chambers SM, editors. *Ectomycorrhizal Fungi: Key Genera in Profile*. Berlin Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag; 1999. p. 369.
6. Futuyma DJ, Moreno G. The evolution of ecological specialization. *Annu Rev Ecol Syst*. 1988;19: 207–233.
7. Gardes M, Bruns TD. ITS Primers with enhanced specificity for Basidiomycetes - Application to the identification of mycorrhizae and rusts. *Mol Ecol*. 1993;2: 113–118.
8. Gardes M, Bruns TD. Community structure of ectomycorrhizal fungi in a *Pinus muricata* forest: above- and below-ground views. *Can J Bot*. 1996;74: 1572–1583.
9. Garland T. Trade-offs. *Curr Biol*. 2014;24: R60–R61.
10. Gaston KJ. *Rarity*. London, UK: Chapman and Hall; 1994.
11. Glassman SI, Peay KG, Talbot JM, Smith DP, Chung J a, Taylor JW, et al. A continental view of pine-associated ectomycorrhizal fungal spore banks: a quiescent functional guild with a strong biogeographic pattern. *New Phytol*. 2015;205: 167–181.
12. Griggs RF. The ecology of rare plants. *Bull Torrey Bot Club*. 1940;67: 575–594.
13. Horton TR, Bruns TD. Multiple-host fungi are the most frequent and abundant ectomycorrhizal types in a mixed stand of Douglas fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*) and bishop pine (*Pinus muricata*). *New Phytol*. 1998;139: 331–339.
14. Horton TR, Bruns TD. The molecular revolution in ectomycorrhizal ecology: peeking into the black-box. *Mol Ecol*. 2001;10: 1855–1871.

15. Izzo A, Agbowo J, Bruns TD. Detection of plot-level changes in ectomycorrhizal communities across years in an old-growth mixed-conifer forest. *New Phytol.* 2005;166: 619–629.
16. James J. Genetic covariances under the partition of resources model. *Aust J Biol Sci.* 1974;27: 99–101.
17. Kennedy P. Ectomycorrhizal fungi and interspecific competition: species interactions, community structure, coexistence mechanisms, and future research directions. *New Phytol.* 2010;187: 895–910.
18. Kennedy PG, Higgins LM, Rogers RH, Weber MG. Colonization-competition tradeoffs as a mechanism driving successional dynamics in ectomycorrhizal fungal communities. *PLoS One.* 2011;6: e25126.
19. Kennedy PG, Hortal S, Bergemann SE, Bruns TD. Competitive interactions among three ectomycorrhizal fungi and their relation to host plant performance. *J Ecol.* 2007;95: 1338–1345.
20. Kennedy PG, Peay KG, Bruns TD. Root tip competition among ectomycorrhizal fungi: Are priority effects a rule or an exception? *Ecology.* 2009;90: 2098–2107.
21. Lailvaux SP, Husak JF. The life-history of whole organism performance. *Q Rev Biol.* 2014;38: 221–233.
22. Liao H-L, Chen Y, Vilgalys R. Metatranscriptomic Study of Common and Host-Specific Patterns of Gene Expression between Pines and Their Symbiotic Ectomycorrhizal Fungi in the Genus *Suillus*. *PLOS Genet.* 2016;12: e1006348.
23. Lofgren LA, Uehling JK, Branco S, Bruns TD, Martin F, Kennedy PG. Genome-based estimates of fungal rDNA copy number variation across phylogenetic scales and ecological lifestyles. *Mol Ecol.* 2019;28: 721–730.
24. Lofgren L, Nguyen NH, Kennedy PG. Ectomycorrhizal host specificity in a changing world: Can legacy effects explain anomalous current associations? *New Phytol.* 2018.
25. MacArthur R. *Geographical Ecology*. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press; 1972.
26. Markham J. Rare species occupy uncommon niches. *Sci Rep.* 2014;4: 63–65.
27. Moeller H V., Peay KG. Competition-function tradeoffs in ectomycorrhizal fungi. *PeerJ.* 2016;4.

28. Mujic AB, Durall DM, Spatafora JW, Kennedy PG. Competitive avoidance not edaphic specialization drives vertical niche partitioning among sister species of ectomycorrhizal fungi. *New Phytol.* 2016;209.
29. Parlade J. Coinoculation of aseptically grown Douglas fir with pairs of ectomycorrhizal fungi. *Mycorrhiza.* 1993;3: 93–96.
30. Nguyen NH, Vellinga EC, Bruns TD, Kennedy PG. Phylogenetic assessment of global *Suillus* ITS sequences supports morphologically defined species and reveals synonymous and undescribed taxa. *Mycologia.* 2016;108.
31. Peay KG, Bruns TD, Kennedy PG, Bergemann SE, Garbelotto M. A strong species-area relationship for eukaryotic soil microbes: island size matters for ectomycorrhizal fungi. *Ecol Lett.* 2007;10: 470–480.
32. Peay KG, Kennedy PG, Bruns TD. Fungal community ecology: A hybrid beast with a molecular master. *Bioscience.* 2008;58: 799–810.
33. Pickles BJ, Genney DR, Potts JM, Lennon JJ, Anderson IC, Alexander IJ. Spatial and temporal ecology of Scots pine ectomycorrhizas. *New Phytol.* 2010;186: 755–768.
34. Plett KL, Singan VR, Wang M, Ng V, Grigoriev I V., Martin F, et al. Inorganic nitrogen availability alters *Eucalyptus grandis* receptivity to the ectomycorrhizal fungus *Pisolithus albus* but not symbiotic nitrogen transfer. *New Phytol.* 2020;226: 221–231.
35. Poulin R. Evolutionary ecology of parasites. Princeton University Press; 2007.
36. R Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. Vienna, Austria; 2018.
37. Rabinowitz D, Rapp JK, Dixon PM. Competitive abilities of sparse grass species: means of persistence or cause of abundance. *Ecology.* 1984;65: 1144–1154.
38. Smith GR, Steidinger BS, Bruns TD, Peay KG. Competition-colonization tradeoffs structure fungal diversity. *ISME J.* 2018;12: 1758–1767.
39. Smith SE, Read DJ. Mycorrhizal Symbiosis. 3rd ed. New York: Elsevier; 2008.
40. Stearns SC. Trade-offs in life-history evolution. *Funct Ecol.* 1989;3: 259–268.
41. Talbot JM, Bruns TD, Taylor JW, Smith DP, Branco S, Glassman SI, et al. Endemism and functional convergence across the North American soil mycobiome. *PNAS.* 2014;111: 1–6.
42. Tilman D. Resource competition and community structure. Princeton University Press;

1982.

43. Twieg BD, Durall DM, Simard SW. Ectomycorrhizal fungal succession in mixed temperate forests. *New Phytol.* 2007;176: 437–447.

44. White T, Bruns T, Lee S, Taylor J. Amplification and direct sequencing of fungal ribosomal RNA genes for phylogenies. In: Innis M, Gefland DH, Sninsky JJ, White TJ, editors. *PCR Protocols: A Guide to Methods and Application*. London: Academic Press; 1990. pp. 315–322.

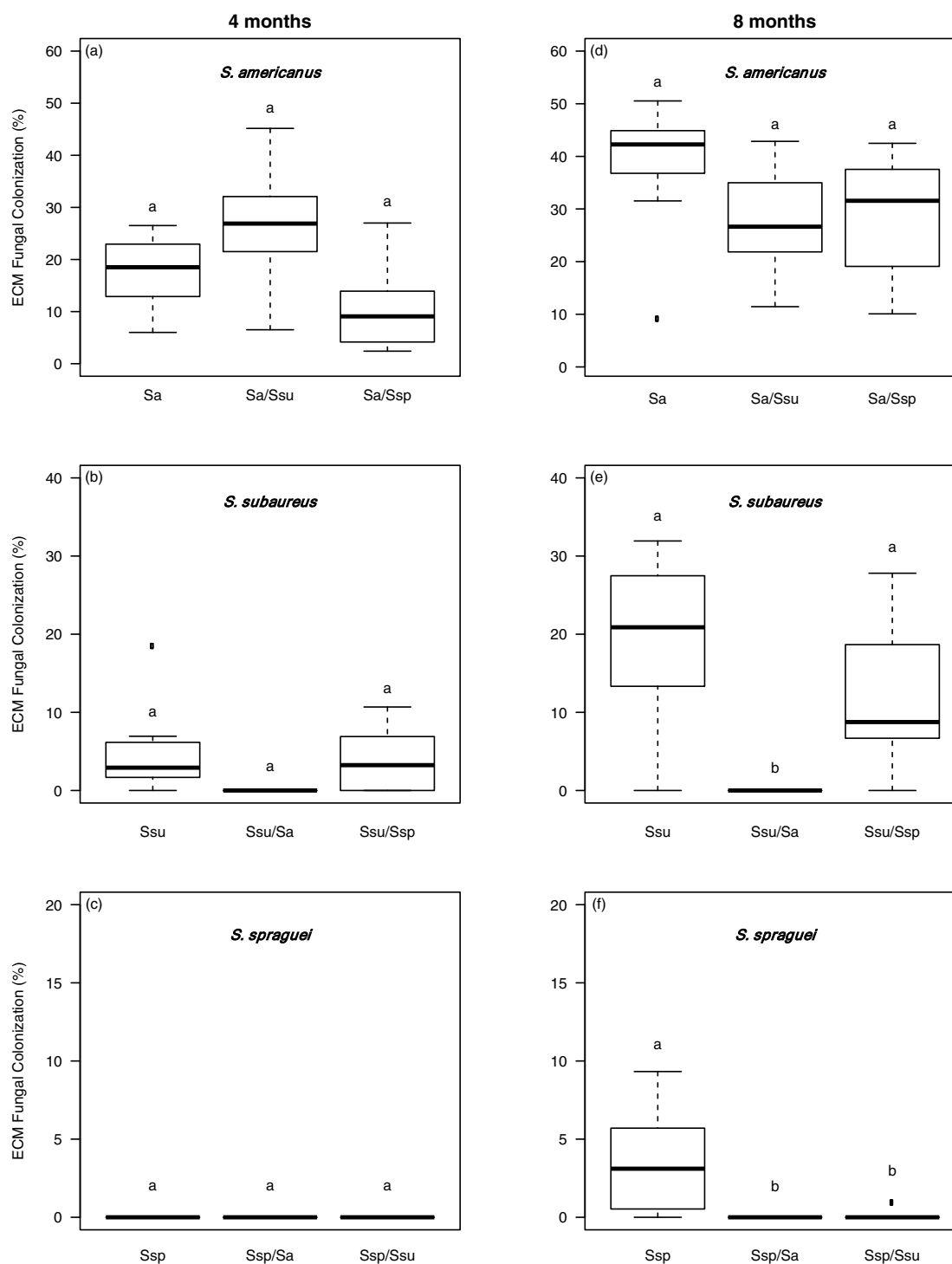
45. Yu DW, Wilson HB. The competition-colonization trade-off is dead; long live the competition-colonization trade-off. *Am Nat.* 2001;158: 49–63.

Fig. Legends

Fig. 1. Percent ectomycorrhizal fungal colonization by *Suillus americanus* (a,d), *S. subaureus* (b,e), and *S. spraguei* (c,f) on *Pinus strobus* seedlings after 4 and 8 months of growth. Boxes represent the 2nd and 3rd interquartile ranges; the horizontal lines in the boxes represent the median; the upper and lower bars outside the boxes represent the 1st and 4th quartiles, respectively. Letters indicate significant statistical differences ($p < 0.05$) between means based on Tukey HSD tests. $N = 7$ for each treatment at both time points.

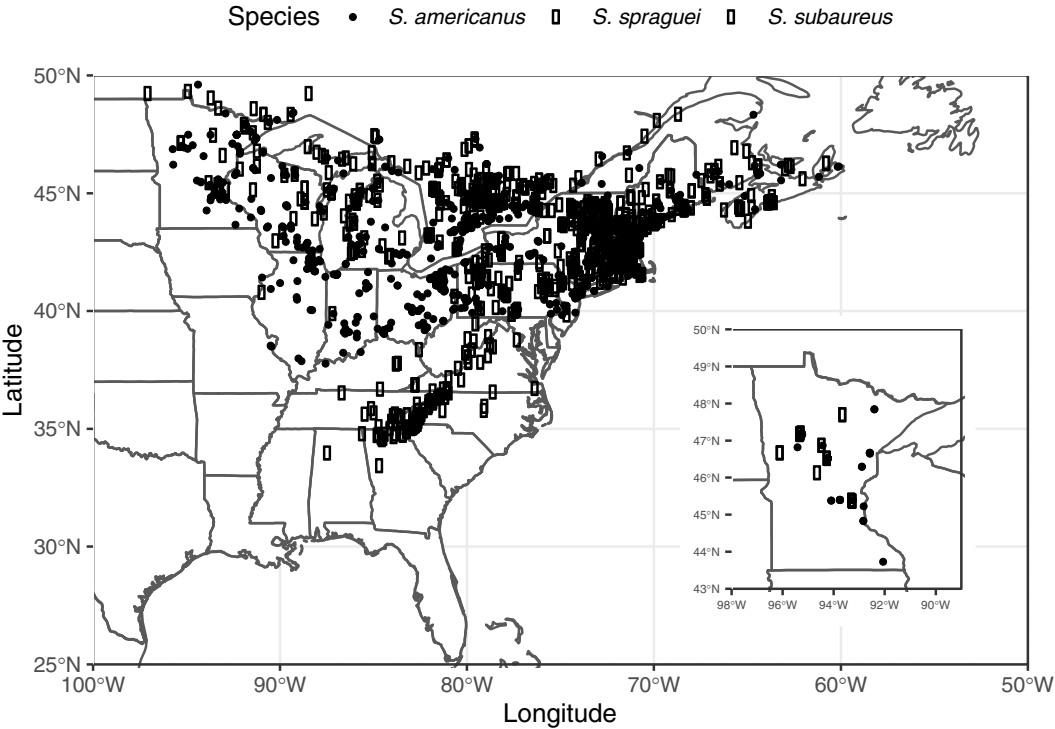
Fig. 2. Distribution of the three *Suillus* species based on observations in the iNaturalist database (main map) and collections in Minnesota from the Bell Museum of Natural History Herbarium (inset).

524 **Fig. 1.**



525

Fig. 2.



529 **Supplemental Information**

530 **Fig. S1.** *Pinus strobus* root tips at 20x magnification. (A) Uncolonized. (B) Colonized by *Suillus*
531 *subaureus*. (C) Colonized by *Suillus americanus*.

532

533 **Fig. S2.** Restriction length fragment polymorphism (RFLP) digest patterns for three *Suillus* species
534 digested using *Alu*I.

535

536 **Fig. S3.** Mushrooms of the three *Suillus* species. (A) *Suillus subaureus*. (B) *Suillus americanus*.
537 (C) *Suillus spraguei*.

538

539 **Fig. S1.** *Pinus strobus* root tips at 20x magnification. (A) Uncolonized. (B) Colonized by *Suillus*
540 *subaureus*. (C) Colonized by *Suillus americanus*.

541
542

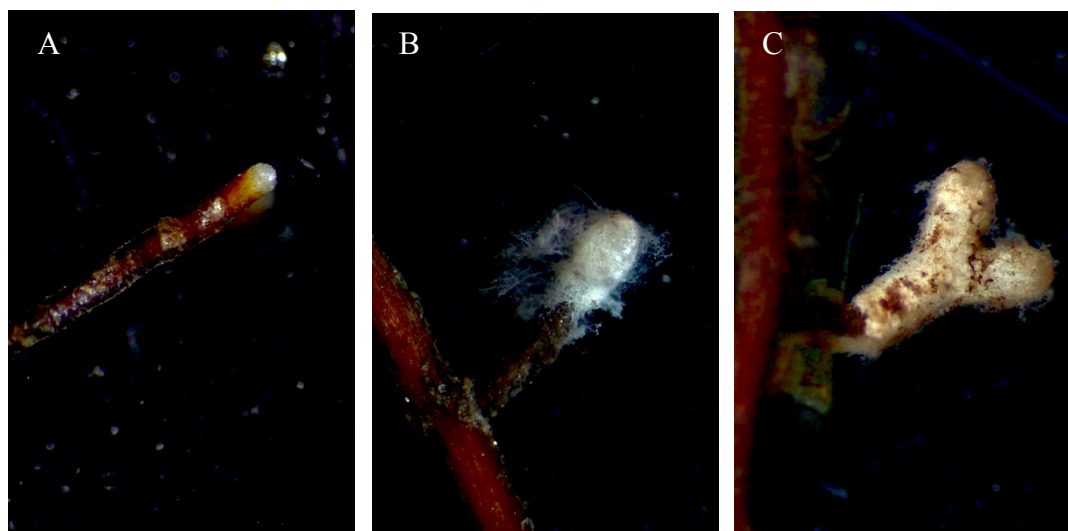
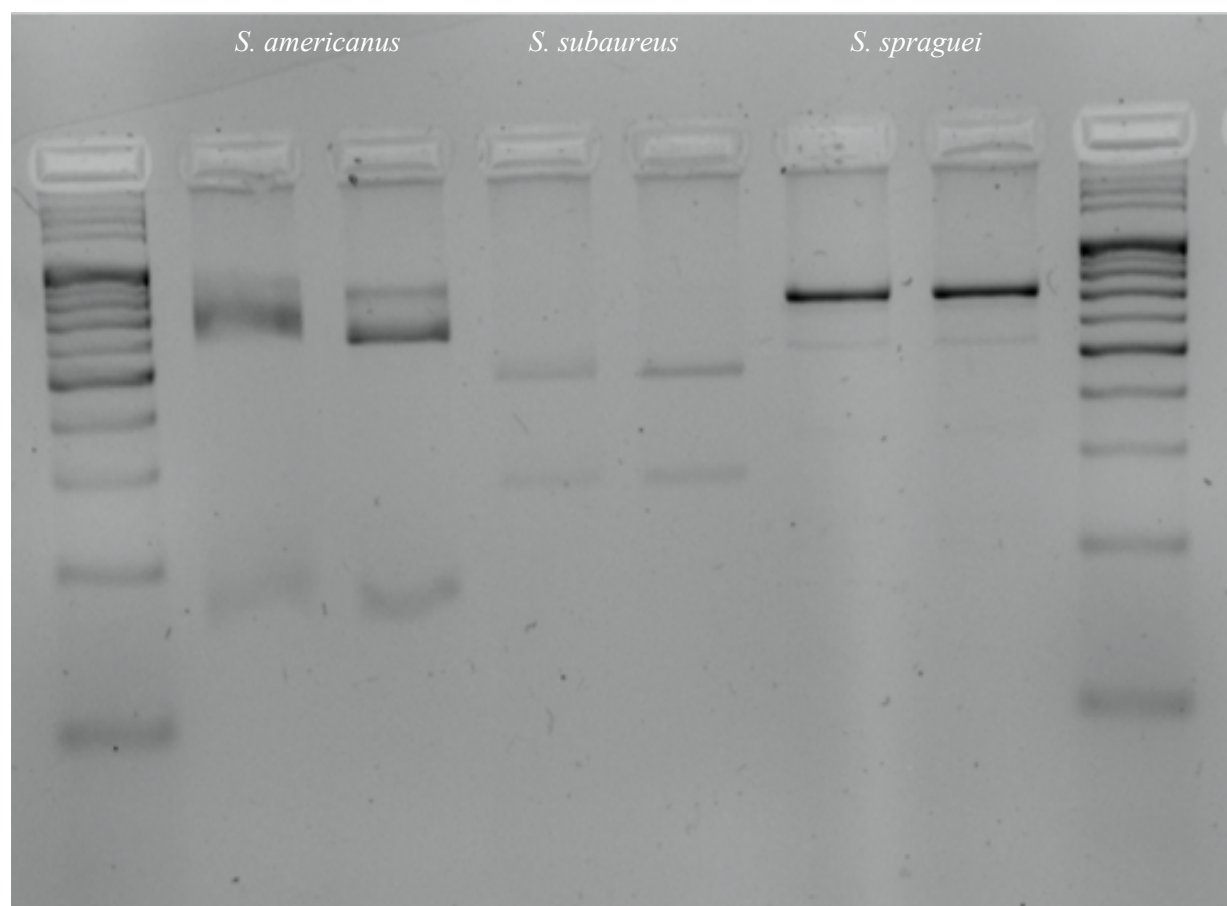


Fig. S2. Restriction length fragment polymorphism (RFLP) digest patterns for three *Suillus* species digested using *Alu1*.



573 **Fig. S3.** Mushrooms of the three *Suillus* species. (A) *Suillus subaureus*. (B) *Suillus americanus*.
574 (C) *Suillus spraguei*.



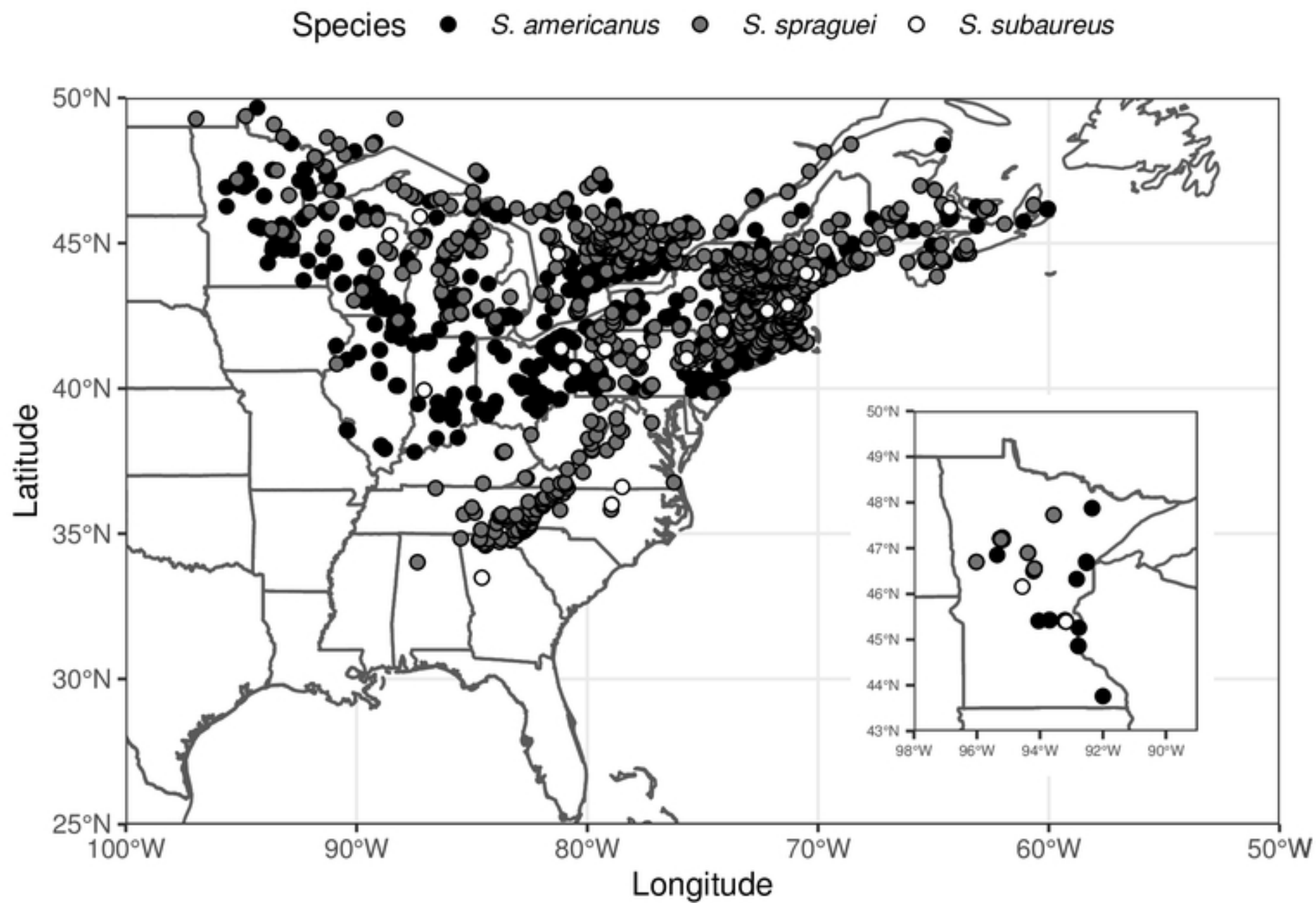


Figure 2